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AN
ABSTRACT
OF
ENGLISH GRAMMAR;
OR

THE PRINCIPLES OF ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX,
DEDUCED FROM THE PHILOSOPHY AND ESTAB-
LISHED USAGES OF THE LANGUAGE, AND STU-
DIOUSLY ACCOMMODATED TO THE UNDER-
STANDINGS OF ALL;

—+—
BY SAMUEL WILLARD,
Author of Rudiments of Reading.
—+—

GREENFIELD, MASS.

PRINTED BY ANSEL PHELPS.

And sold by him at his Book-Store—also, by S.
Butler, Northampton, T. Dickman, Spring-
field, and Cummings & Hilliard, Boston and
Cambridge.

1816.

1816

1816

DISTRICT OF MASSACHUSETTS, *to wit* :

District Clerk's Office.

BE IT REMEMBERED, That on the first day of April, A. D. 1816, and in the fortieth year of the independence of the United States of America, *Samuel Willard*, of the said district, has deposited in this office the title of a book, the right whereof he claims as author, in the words following, *to wit* :

“An Abstract of English Grammar, or the principles of etymology and syntax, deduced from the philosophy and established usages of the language, and studiously accommodated to the understandings of all ; by *Samuel Willard*, author of *Rudiments of Reading*.”

In conformity to the act of the congress of the United States, entitled, “an act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts and books; to the authors and proprietors of such copies, during the times therein mentioned ;” and also to an act entitled, “an act supplementary to an act entitled, an act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts and books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies during the times therein mentioned ; and extending the benefits thereof to the arts of designing, engraving and etching historical and other prints.”

JNO. W. DAVIS,

Clerk of the District of Massachusetts.

B. H. 387.729
Oct. 21. 1886

AN ABSTRACT, &c.

THE subject of grammar is language.

*Language is a system or collection of words written or spoken, applied by common consent to the various purposes of necessity or convenience in communicating thoughts and feelings.

The grammar of any language is both a science and an art. As a *science*, it implies an acquaintance with all the words in common use, and teaches their mutual offices and relations in all the various combinations, propriety admits. As an *art*, it consists in a ready application of the science† to practical purposes, both in apprehending what is written or spoken, and in speaking or writing with verbal propriety.

AXIOMS.

1. Every word‡ in a language must have a distinguishable office and meaning.

**These definitions and axioms, and many other parts of the grammar should be omitted in the instruction of immature minds.*

†*Some arts may be practised by those, who know little or nothing of the sciences, on which they are built; but from the nature and use of language, it can not be so with the art of grammar.*

‡*“To suppose that there are words entirely devoid of signification is at once to render all in-*

2. The several meanings of words are to be discovered only by analysis or separate views; and the more thorough the analysis,* the *shorter*, the *simpler*, and the more *thorough* the grammar.

3. As many words in all languages are applied to very complex ideas, and the degrees of complexness are the results of *accident*, or *contrivance*, and not of any general *laws*, it is utterly absurd to suppose that in respect to ideas the degrees of analysis in one language must correspond to those in any other, or that the same parts of speech in †different languages must require the same modes of treatment.

quiries after the principles of grammar nugatory and ridiculous." *Encycloped. vol. 2. p. 61.*

N. B. The *Encyclopedia*, cited in this and other parts of the grammar, is the one generally called Dobson's.

**There is a correspondent maxim in chymistry and every other branch of natural philosophy; and why is it so much disregarded in the science of grammar? Why should we in so many instances take our words in groups or parcels, while each has a peculiar and definable office?*

†*For instance, the number of modes and tenses in Latin can furnish no certain laws, nor scarcely a shadow of presumption, relative to those of any other language, we may propose to examine; because the ideas of Latin verbs in some of their forms are extremely complex, and of course are capable of being divided into many distinct parts, some of which may be expressed by verbs, others*

4. The science of grammar must suppose every word significant of some radical idea, *which

by pronouns, and others by adverbs. No reason can be given, why the treatment of the English verb should be controlled by that of the Latin, rather than the Hebrew, which, though it has fewer tenses, is in some respects still more artificial and complex, than the Latin; being made to define the agent under the distinctions of three numbers and two sexes, as well as three persons; in some of its forms including the object of the action, with other things, too numerous to be mentioned. On the same principle therefore, that we assign to the English verb, the same number of modes and tenses with the Latin, we might go on by other assemblages of words, adding mode to mode, and tense to tense, as long as ideas could be combined, and then we might say of every sentence, whether short or long, "It is a verb, in such a mode and tense," and the work would be done!!! But, though one language can not give laws to another, the relations of words, that are not signified by appropriate forms, may often be illustrated by synonymous phrases in the same or different languages, in which the relations are apparent. See Resolutions of Phrases, &c, at the end of Syntax.

*"To suppose that words have not each a radical and determinate signification, is to suppose language incapable of philosophical investigation." *Encyc. p. 61. vol. 8.*

To trace out and keep in view the radical ideas of words, must tend much to the simplification of

it *never loses*, however in different forms and relations it may become significant of *additional* ideas.

5. As in every branch of natural philosophy, so also in *grammar*, the science may be rendered more apprehensible and concise, by classifications, grounded on similarity of office in the several parts.

6. Every distinct class of words, where the distinction is of sufficient importance to be noticed, should, if possible, be so clearly *defined*, that it may at once be seen, what words belong to that class, and what do not.

7. The science of grammar must be embarrassed and obscured by the application of names to the several classes or divisions, which are significant of other things, than those, which are the real grounds of distinction.

8. All the words, which in like manner perform like offices, provided those be their *principal* offices, are to be considered, as of the same part of speech.

9. The science of grammar must proceed on the ground, that language is *elliptical*, and the ellipsis of one word does not essentially vary the office of another, nor cause it to be of a dif-

language ; to the ease of learning and retaining the precise significations of words in all their forms and relations. As an exemplification of this remark, the learned reader is referred to Pike's Hebrew Lexicon. This exercise of searching for the radical ideas of words necessarily supposes every word to be taken by itself.

ferent part of speech, from what it otherwise would be.

10. In respect to the forms of words, and the composition of sentences and phrases, the custom of good writers, so far as consistent with the radical ideas of words, is at least a permissive *law* ; and every system of grammar is false,* whose rules and definitions are not accommodated to such custom.

11. All modes of expression, which from the *radical ideas* of words involve *contradictions*, however frequent in the best authors, are to be cast out, as insolvable on the principles of grammar, and entitled to no indulgence.

12. Every mode of expression, tending to embarrass grammar with needless *irregularities*, is a just object of *remonstrance*, though not of positive *censure*.

13. Considered as a mean of facilitating the knowledge and correct application of language, grammar, like all *other* sciences and arts, is free from the restraints of custom. That is, the question is not, what *other grammarians* have said, but what is *true*, and in what way the truth may be most easily taught.†

*See observations on the unappropriateness of those forms of the verb, called present and past.

†For the correctness of this, and the preceding principles the author appeals to the common sense of reflecting men ; and by these principles he wishes them to decide on the comparative merit of the work.

ETYMOLOGY, OR ANALYSIS.

In the English language are eight* kinds of words, commonly called parts of speech; the

**If any object to the omission of the article, as not a distinct part of speech, let him give a definition of it, that will not include every adjective, or let him give a complete one of the adjective, that will not include a and the. Such definitions the author has never seen, nor can he imagine them possible. It is the office of every adjective, when it is not the predicate of a proposition, to limit or define the noun. Thus, if I have several horses, one of which is black, and I tell my servant to go, and get the black horse, the word black, is, by the definition, as strictly an article, as a or the.*

The Encyclopedia treats excellently of the article, if it be considered distinct from the adjective; classing this, that, each, every, either, some, any, few, many, one, two, three, &c. with a and the. When, however, it comes to speak of the adjective, we find it is little else, than a repetition or continuation of what is said under the article.

To me there appears a greater difference between a and the, than between a and one, two, ten, few, many, &c. or between the and this, that, every, and the like. If so, the usual division is calculated not to enlighten, but to confound and mislead the mind in respect to the appropriate offices of words. (See axioms 6, 8.) For the accommodation of those, however, who prefer the customary division, it is subjoined below.

Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Conjunction, Preposition and Interjection.

OF THE NOUN.

A noun is the name of any thing, of which we can speak, or think ; as *body, soul, noise, sickness.*

Some nouns are called Proper, and others Common. A *proper* noun is a name, that belongs to *one* person or place, and not to every other of the same kind ; as *James, Mary, Boston.* A *common* noun is a name given to every thing of the same kind ; as *boy, girl, town.*

OF NUMBER.

Nouns have two numbers, called *Singular* and *Plural*. When we speak of *one* thing only, we use the *singular* number ; as *book, box.*—When we speak of *more* than one, we use the *plural* ; as *books, boxes.* The singular number most commonly becomes plural by adding *s* to the end. When the singular ends in *ch, sh, ss, z, or o,* the plural is made by adding *es* ; as *watch,*

“ *There are nine parts of speech, the Article, Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Conjunction, Preposition and Interjection.*”

“ *An article is a word prefixed to a noun, to point it out, or show how far its signification extends.*”

“ *There are two articles a or an and the. A is called the indefinite, the the definite article.*”

“ *A becomes an before words beginning with a, e, i, o, short u, or silent h.*”

matches ; brush, brushes ; glass, glasses ; fox, foxes ; no, noes. When the singular ends in *y*, or *cy*, after a consonant, the plural ends in *ies* ; as *lily, lilies ; journey, journeys.* Some singulars ending in *f, fc, or ff*, are changed for the plural into *ves* ; as *calf, calves ; life, lives ; staff, staves.*

The following nouns are thus varied from the singular to the plural.

<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
Man,	men	Axis,	Axes
Woman,	women	Analysis,	analyses
Foot,	feet	Basis,	bases
Tooth,	teeth	Crisis,	crises
Goose,	geese	Ellipsis,	ellipses
Louse,	lice	Emphasis,	emphases
Mouse,	mice	Hypothesis,	hypotheses
Ox,	oxen	Parenthesis,	parentheses
Penny,	pence	Synopsis,	synopses
Child,	children	Thesis,	theses
Brother,	*brethren	Genus,	genera
Cherub,	†cherubim	Phenomenon,	phenomena
Seraph,	†seraphim	Criterion,	criteria
Radius,	radii	Memorandum,	memoranda
Focus,	foci	Stratum,	strata
Index,	} indices or indexes	Erratum,	errata
		Desideratum,	desiderata

Some nouns are the same in both numbers ; as *sheep, deer, youth, series, species.* Some have no plural ; as *wheat, rye, cider* ; some, no singu-

*Or, *brothers.*

†Or, *cherubs and seraphs.*

lar; as *toys, snuffers, shears, catile*. Some, tho' plural in form, are by some writers considered singular, and used with singular adjectives and verbs, particularly, *news, wages, means, bellows, victuals, molasses and measles*.

Though English nouns have only two forms, significant of different numbers, a correct use of many words (see adjectives and prepositions) requires *three* distinctions of number in the *language*; the *singular*, as before defined, the *dual* which is expressive of *two*, and no more, and the *plural*, expressive of *more than two*.

OF GENDER.

In respect to *gender*, nouns may be divided into *four* kinds, those of the *Masculine, Feminine, Common* and *Neuter* gender. The name of such a living thing, as we call *he*, is *masculine*; as *James, boy, son, ox*. The name of such a living thing, as is called *she*, is *feminine*; as *Sarah, girl, daughter, &c.* Those, of *gender*. The following are some of the most frequent variations.

Masc.	Fem.	Masc.	Fem.
Abbot,	abbess	Poet,	poetess
Actor.	actress	Prophet,	prophetess
Count,	countess	Shepherd,	shepherdess

which may be either masculine or feminine, are called *common* gender; as *youth, writer, singer*. Things without life, or those, which are neither masculine, nor feminine, are called *neuter*.

A few nouns are *varied*, to express difference

<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
Deacon, deaconess		Seamster,	seamstress
Emperor, empress		Sorcerer,	sorceress
Governor, governess		Adulterer,	adulteress
Heir, heiress		Duke,	duchess
Jew, Jewess		Marquis,	marchioness
Prince, princess		Hero,	heroine
Master, mistress			

Administrator, executor and testator make *administratrix, &c.* in the feminine.

When we speak of several persons, male and female, together, we use the masculine form for the whole. Thus we apply the terms *heirs, administrators, &c.* to both sexes, when unitedly considered; so also, when the sex is unknown.

OF CASE.

Nouns are considered, as having *three cases*; the Nominative, Possessive and Objective.—The nominative and objective cases are spelled alike. The possessive is made by adding *s*, with an apostrophe, thus,

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Pos.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>
John,	John's,	John.

When the nominative ends in the sound of *s*, the possessive is marked by an apostrophe without an additional *s*, thus,

goodness' sake, conscience' sake.

Some add the *s* thus, *Thomas, Thomas's*

OF THE ADJECTIVE.

Adjectives are words, added to nouns and pronouns, to point out the particular persons or

things, that are meant, or else to show the number or kind; as *the man*,* *this book*, *a boy*, *some boys*, *fifty boys*, *good boys*.

A and *the* are sometimes expletive.

Adjectives relating to number are called Numeral adjectives. Some of these are invariably singular; viz. *a*, *one*, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*.

Two and *both* are †dual. *Three*, *four*, &c. *few*, *many*, *several*, and *all* are plural, as distinguished from the dual. *This*, which is singular, makes *these* in the plural, and *that* those.

Each, *every*, *either* and *neither*, while they refer immediately to singular nouns, have a secondary reference to the dual, or the plural numbers. *Each* signifies both, or all the persons or things, taken separately. *Every* signifies all of three or more things, taken separately. *Either*, according to Dr. Johnson, has a secondary reference to the dual number, and signifies one, or the other, but not both. *Neither* likewise refers to two things, and signifies not one, nor the other. *Any* and *none* have a similar reference to three or more things. The secondary reference of the couplet *each other* is dual; that of *one another*, plural.

*“If it be true, as we acknowledge it to be, that the genuine pronoun always stands by itself, assuming the power of the noun, and supplying its place, then it is certain, that the words, *this*, *that*, *any*, *some*, &c. can never be pronouns.” Encyc,

†See Number, p. 11.

This in its definitive power points to some thing *near* in time or place ; *that*, to something *remote* ; and so of their plurals.

For the ease of proaunciation *a* becomes *an* before silent *h*, and before the vowels *a*, *e*, *i*, *o*, and short *u* ; as *an herb*, *an egg*, *an ulcer*. *A* is used before *one*. When the noun is omitted *no* becomes *none*.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

Most adjectives of *one* syllable expressing *quality* or *measure*, and some of *two* syllables, especially those, which end in *y* or *le*, have *three forms*, commonly called *degrees* of *comparison* ; viz. the Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

When we speak of one person, or thing, or class of things, without express reference to any other, we use the positive ; as “ *George is a good man.*” When we speak of *two* in reference to the same quality, we apply the *comparative* form, to the one, that is principally in view ; as “ *George is better, than Peter ;*” or else we say, “ *Peter is not so good, as George.*”—When we speak of *three* or *more*, we apply the superlative form to the one, that takes the lead ; as *George is the best of the three ; or best of all.*” Or we compare the principal subject with each of the others separately, thus, “ *George is better, than Peter, or James.*”

The comparative form is made from the positive by the addition of *r* or *er* ; the superlative by *st* or *est*, thus :

Pos.	Com.	Sup.
Wise,	wiser,	wisest
Heavy,	heavier,	heaviest

When the positive ends in *y*, it is changed into *i* before *er* and *est*.

Many adjectives of two syllables, and all of more than two, are always used in the positive form, and the different degrees or numbers of comparison are signified by the separate words, *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*.

Some superlatives are made by the addition of *most* to the comparative; as *upper*, *uppermost*.

Some adjectives, though *positive* in form, are *superlative* in sense, and therefore admit no variation in form, nor sense; such are *perfect*, *complete*, *extreme*, *chief*, &c.

Irregular, or Defective Forms.

Pos.	Com.	Sup.
Good,	better,	best
Bad, }	worse,	worst
Ill, }		
Fore,	former	foremost, or first
Late,	later, or latter,	latest, or last
Little,	less,	least
Many, }	more,	most
Much, }		
Near,	nearer,	nearest, or next.

OF THE PRONOUN.

A pronoun is a word, that is used to supply the place of a noun *in any case, the *possessive*

*The usual definition of the pronoun does not distinguish it from the adverb, nor by any means show the extent of its office.

in some instances excepted, and likewise supplies the place of any word or number of words, whereby that noun is defined; as *Mary gave me HER book.* “*A man of great mental powers, firm health, ample means, and industrious habits, will make great proficiency in learning; HE will become a profound scholar.*” In this second example *HE* supplies the place of all the words in Italics.

The words, which are to be considered mere pronouns are, *I, thou, he, she, it*, and their plurals; also the compounds, *myself, thyself, himself, &c.* To these we must add *one* and *another*, unless we say they are always adjectives, (and they always have the *definitive nature* of adjectives,) though, when the noun is understood, they assume the *form* of the noun.

I, thou, he, she and *it* are thus varied for number and case:

SING.			PLUR.		
Nom.	Pes.	Obj.	Nom.	Pes.	Obj.
I	*my	me	we	our	us
Thou	thy	thee	ye or you	your	you
He	his	him	they	their	them
She	her	her			
It	its	it			

In common discourse we use *you* and *your* in the singular, as well as plural.

**My, thy, her, &c.* are, by the definition, pronouns in the possessive case, as it is evident from the following examples; Mary gave me *HER* book; John and James gave *THEIR* word; *that* is, John and James' word.

When the name of the thing possessed is omitted, *my, thy, her, our, your* and *their*, become *mine, thine, hers, &c.* *Mine* and *thine* are sometimes used *with* the noun, when it begins with a vowel sound.

One and *another* we decline like regular nouns, excepting that *another* makes *others* in the plural.

Pronouns have reference to *three persons*.—The *first person* is the speaker, who uses the pronoun *I* or *we*; the second, the person spoken to, who is called *thou* or *you*; the third, some other person or thing, called *he, she* or *it* in the singular, according to the gender, and *they* in the plural.

Myself, thyself, himself, &c. may be called *Subjunctive* pronouns, being almost always subjoined to the agent or subject, either as the object of his own action, or an expression of emphasis or contradistinction; as *I hurt myself; he did it himself.*

Who, which, what and *that*, when pronouns, together with the compounds, *whenever, whosoever, whichever, whatever, &c.* may from their offices be termed either* *Definitive*, or *Connective*;

* *How preposterous to apply the terms, personal and relative, by way of distinction to words, which, if pronouns indeed, are equally personal and equally relative! He, she, it, and they in particular have relations to antecedents, which are of the utmost importance to be observed. See Proverbs xxxi. 10—28. See also Axiom 7.*

The author had a strong disposition to call

for they serve to connect two sentences together, one of which often qualifies or defines a prin-

who, which, what, &c. *connective* adjectives. Had he been writing a Latin or Greek grammar, he would have felt little or no hesitation relative to the parallel words, *qui, quæ, quod*, or 'os 'H, 'O, To call any word a pronoun, when used with the noun to which it refers, is perfect nonsense. That the Greek and Latin relatives, so called, are occasionally used in this manner, can not have escaped the notice of the critical scholar. Instances of this in Latin are so frequent, that it may be thought needless to quote. Let the two following examples from Cicero suffice. "*An in senatu facillime de me detrahi posse credidit? QUI ORDO clarissimis civibus bene gestæ reipublicæ testimonium multis, mihi un conservatæ dedit.*" "*QUI LOCUS quietis et tra quillitatis plenissimus fore videbatur, in eo maximæ moles molestiarum—extiterunt.*" Similar examples in Greek are less frequent; but, if my recollection serves me, they do occur. Such a use of which and what in English is common. Now the question is, whether the office of these parallel words be not always the same, with the unimportant exception, that there sometimes is, and sometimes is not an ellipsis of the noun, which must be expressed or understood, and be defined by such words; and, if so, whether simplicity does not require them always to be called adjectives, (or article, if we make such a part of speech.) In favor of this it is observable, that some if not all the old Greek grammars did call 'os, 'H, 'O, the subjunctive article. Latin gram-

incipal part of the other. Thus in the following example, "the man, *whom* you saw from Boston yesterday, is dead," *whom* connects the propo-

marians have made a change in classification, but not a very evident improvement. That these words are not mere pronouns, if pronouns, is manifest from this. the repetition of the noun without them does not answer the purpose. This sentence, for instance, "I have a book, which pleases me much," can not be accurately expressed by the restoration of the noun for the pronoun, so called; - "I have a book, a book pleases me much." We must have the noun, expressed or understood, and likewise some definitive word to identify the subject of it with the person or thing, mentioned before. Such definitives are the words, we are considering. There is, I conceive, no redundancy in the ideas of this expression, "I have a book, which book pleases me much." All we can say, is, that the ellipsis of the noun is more common, and more convenient.

The chief objections to the practical adoption of this doctrine in English are, that who and which, (like Latin and Greek definitives,) assume the cases of the nouns, they define, and that by the custom of our language who can never be used in connexion with the noun. In regard to the latter of these difficulties, I would barely suggest one query, and leave the philologist to decide upon it; viz. Whether we may not consider the noun, as really understood, though custom does not allow it to be expressed; in the same manner, that we understand prepositions, where we are forbidden actually to insert them?

sition "you saw from Boston yesterday," to the other preposition, thus defining the subject *man*.

Which and *what*, with their compounds, when they do not connect sentences or propositions, may be called *adjectives*, referring to subsequent nouns expressed or understood; as, *Which* man will you employ? *What* shall I do? (*What* thing?)

Who, when employed in asking a question, is called an Interrogative pronoun.

Who is applied to persons, being considered masculine and feminine; *which* to beasts, to things without life, to collective nouns, such as nation, assembly, &c. and in certain cases to individual persons. *That* and *what* refer either to persons or things.

Who and *which* are thus declined in both numbers;

Nom.	Pos.	Obj.
Who	whose	whom
Which	*whose	which.

Whom, when it follows *than*, is to be considered a *nominative*, though objective in form; as, "Elijah was a prophet, than whom, none was

*Some grammarians deny a possessive case to *which*. But certainly there is in many instances great elegance and convenience in it. In the following sentences the idea of the possessive case could not otherwise be so well expressed, "Ye shall be as an oak, whose leaf fadeth." "I saw a tree, whose height reached unto heaven."

more zealous ;" that is, *than which prophet was.*
(See axiom 12.)

OF THE VERB.

A verb is a word, that signifies to **be*, to *do*, to *suffer*, &c. (to be in any state, to act, or not to act, to have, or to experience,) as *I READ ; he WROTE.*

In respect to *signification* or *office*, verbs are of *three* kinds, Transitive, Intransitive and Passive. The transitive verb expresses an action, that passes immediately from the agent or nominative to some object ; as *Brutus KILLED Cæsar.* The intransitive verb expresses a state of being, or an action, that does *not* pass immediately from the subject or agent to any object ; as *I live ; I run.* The passive verb expresses the *effect* of an action, performed by some one, who, if mentioned, is not generally the principal subject of discourse ; as *Cæsar was KILLED by Brutus ; " Time well SPENT, makes life happy."*

Transitive verbs, when they relate to habits, rather than particular acts, often become intransitive ; as, he writes fast. On the other hand intransitive verbs, when limited to particular acts, often become transitive ; as *I RODE a JOURNEY.*

**Some have thought that the common definition of the verb does not include shall, will, may, must, &c. I think it does. When I say " I shall do a thing," I assert that I am in a state of certainty relative to that act, " I must do it," I am in a state of necessity, &c.*

The right use of the verb requires attention to the *mode, tense, person and number*.

Mode is the general manner of expressing the sense of a verb.

There are **five* modes, called the Indicative,

**The complete analysis, for which we contend, (see axioms,) and which is manifestly indispensable to etymology, gives no place to a potential mode. The phrases, that have sometimes been distinguished by this name, are to be resolved into the subjunctive or indicative, and the infinitive, as in the phrase, I can write: This is the resolution of the parallel phrases in Hebrew, Greek, Latin and French, as we know by the forms of the words. All the other phrases, which have been arranged under this mode, admit a like resolution.*

The common method of treating the verb is to be deprecated, as tending to form in the youthful mind not only the habit of passing superficially over things, which ought to be thoroughly examined, but that of enduring CONTRADICTION, FALSEHOOD, and NONSENSE, even in the garb of science. None will hesitate to call MAY, for instance, a WORD, and HAVE a word, and BEEN a word. If each of them be not a word, it is impossible to say what a word is. Farther we are told, a VERB is A WORD, that is, one word, that signifies, &c.—And yet we are told, that such a phrase, as MAY HAVE BEEN LOVED, is A VERB, and further that it is from LOVE! How much worse in point of truth or sense would it be, to say, that PITT, FOX, BURKE and SHERIDAN were A MAN BORN of such A WOMAN! To avoid a part of this nonsense and

the Imperative or Precative, the Subjunctive, the Infinitive and the *Participial.

The indicative mode is generally used in *declaring, denying, or inquiring*; as *I WROTE*; *I CAN not write*; *WILL he write?*

The imperative or precative mode expresses a command, a wish, or a prayer; as *WRITE thou*; "*Thy kingdom come.*"

The subjunctive mode is generally used in connexion with the indicative, or the imperative, and expresses condition, or end; as *WERE I there, I would, &c.* "*See thou DO it not.*"

The infinitive depends on some other mode, and expresses the sense of the verb without immediate reference to the agent or subject; as *I can WRITE, or am able to WRITE.*

The participial mode, or the participle, (as it may still be called,) expresses the sense of the

falsehood, some grammarians have run into the contradiction of OMITTING the etymology, even while they are PROFESSING to GIVE it!

**Mr. Murray contends strenuously for the participle, as "a mode of the verb," and yet has not the consistency of assigning it a place among the modes, as it must have, if it be any verb at all.*

†*In the nature of things there appears no necessity for the subjunctive mode, and hence probably the indiscriminate use of the subjunctive and the indicative in many cases. The Hebrew suffers no embarrassment from the want of the subjunctive. In most instances it is supplied by the indicative or infinitive; in others, as in Exod. xxx. 40, by the imperative.*

verb, as an attribute of the agent, subject, or patient, and is often a tacit assertion, or supposition; as *I am* WRITING; *this* DONE, *all will be safe*.

The participle sometimes assumes the nature and office of an adjective, and sometimes that of a noun. Occasionally it stands in the double relation of a noun and a verb.

OF TENSE.

Tense relates to the time of an action or state of being.

We have the means of expressing an action or state of being with millions of distinctions in regard to time and degrees of accomplishment. But no single verb has more than *three* forms significant of tense, nor more than *two* in any *one* mode.

The indicative, the subjunctive, and the participial modes have two forms, which may be called Present and Past; the imperative and the infinitive, only one each.

In one instance the verb in the precative mode has two tenses; viz *Will* God grant this, *would* God, it were so.

The most accurate distinction of the participle is that of Imperfect, as *writing*, and Perfect, as *written*.

The **present* tense, so called, is sometimes *future* in signification; in the subjunctive mode

**The ingenious author of grammar in the Encyclopedia, and Mr. Murray after him, seem to have involved the idea of present time in needless*

generally future ; as, *when I go,* I will inform you ; I move that a meeting be called next month.*

The past tense, so called, is sometimes *†present*, or *future* in sense ; as “ O that they UNDERSTOOD this ! ” *I wish I WERE there If you LOVED me you would not treat me, as you do. If I WENT my journey next week, I-should return the week after.*

The imperative mode is necessarily future in signification. The infinitive is almost always future in respect to the time of the verb, on which it depends ; as *I am to write ; it was to be.*

uncertainty. Probably the indefiniteness of present time in their minds arose from want of distinguishing between particular acts, and habits of acting. If you say you are writing, you assert a particular act to exist at the time, you are speaking. If you say you write fast, you assert that the habit or faculty of writing fast coexists with the moment of assertion, or in other words, that the duration of the habit comprises that moment. If we have no fixed idea of present, it is idle to talk of past or future.

**Some may say that go in this example is present in respect to the phrase, will inform. So on the other hand we may say, will inform is present in respect to go. The fact is, they are both future in relation to that point of time, which nine hundred and ninety nine in a thousand would call present.*

†The instructor should exercise his pupils in pointing out the temporal sense of verbs.

OF PERSON AND NUMBER.

The persons and numbers in the verb correspond to those in the pronoun; that is, there are three persons, 1st, 2d and 3d; two numbers, singular and plural.

OF CONJUGATION.

A verb is said to be conjugated, when the first person singular of the present and past of the indicative mode, and the perfect participle are given; as

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Part.</i>
Am	was	been
Write	wrote	written
Love	loved	loved.

When we vary a verb in accommodation to *person and number in a particular mode and tense*, it may be convenient to call it *personating* the verb, (though a new use of the term.)

The verbs *am, have, shall, will, do, must, can* and *may* have something peculiar in their forms, and are thus varied:

INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Pres. Tense.</i>		<i>Past Tense.</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
I am,	we are,	I was,	we are,
thou art,	you are,	thou wast,	you were,
he is;	they are.	he was;	they were.

IMPERATIVE OR PRECATIVE MODE.

Sing. Be thou, be it; *Plu.* be you, be they.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>PRES. TENSE.</i>		<i>PAST TENSE.</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plu.</i>
I be,	we be,	I were,	we were,
thou be,	you be,	thou wert,	you were,
he be;	they be.	he were;	they were.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Be.

PARTICIPIAL MODE.

Imperfect.

Perfect.

Being,

Been.

The Verb Hve.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Pres. Tense.

Past Tense.

Sing. Plu.

Sing. Plu.

I have,	we have	I had,	we had,
thou hast,	you have,	thou hadst,	you had,
he has or hath;	they have.	he had;	they had.

IMPERATIVE OR PRECATIVE MODE.

Sing.

Plu.

Have thou, the Lord have; have you.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Pres. Tense.

Past Tense.

Sing. Plu.

Sing. Plu.

I have	we have,	I had,	we had
thou have,	you have,	thou hadst,	you had,
he have;	they have.	he had;	they had.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Have.

PARTICIPIAL MODE.

Imperf.

Perf.

Having,

Had.

The Verb Do.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Pres. Tense.

Past Tense.

Sing. Plu.

Sing. Plu.

I do,	we do,	I did,	we did,
thou dost, or doest,	you do,	thou didst,	you did,
he does, doth or	they do.	he did;	they did.
doeth;			

IMPERATIVE OR PRECATIVE MODE.

Sing.

Plu.

Do thou, the Lord do; do ye or you.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Sing.

Plu.

I do, thou do, he do; we do, &c.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Do.

PARTICIPIAL MODE.

Imperf.

Perf.

Doing,

Done.

The Verb Will.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Pres. Tense.

Past Tense.

Sing.

Plu.

Sing.

Plu.

I will,	we will,	I would,	we would,
thou wilt,	you will,	thou wouldst,	you would,
he will;	they will.	he would;	they would.

IMPERATIVE OR PRECATIVE MODE.

Pres. Tense.

Past Tense.

Will God,

Would God.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Will.

Participle

Imperfect,

Willing.

If *will* has any subjunctive mode, it is like the indicative.

Shall is varied like *will*, but wants the imperative, infinitive, and participial modes.

Can wants the same modes with *shall*. In the present indicative it makes *thou canst*. Otherwise it is varied like *will*.

The Verb May.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Pres. Tense.

Past Tense.

Sing.

Plu.

Sing.

Plu.

I may,	we may,	I might,	we might,
thou mayest	you may	thou mightest,	you might
he may;	they may.	he might;	they might.

PRECATIVE MODE.

Sing.

Plu.

May I, mayst thou,	may we, may you,
may he;	may they.

Must is the same in all persons and both tenses.

Verbs, which are not used in all the modes and tenses, are called Defective.

Verbs, which make the past tense and perfect participle in *ed*, are called Regular; as

Pres.

Past.

Part.

Love,

loved,

loved.

Those, which are not conjugated in this manner, are called Irregular.

All verbs, but those above, and a few, that are very defective, are personated in the following manner.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Pres. Tense.

Past Tense.

Sing.

Plu.

Sing.

Plu.

I love,	we love,	I loved,	we loved,
thou lovest,	you love,	thou lovedst,	you loved,
he loveth,	they love.	he loved;	they loved.
or loves;			

IMPER. OR PREC. MODE.

Sing.

Plu.

Love thou, the Lord love; Love ye or you.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Sing.

Plu.

I love, thou love, he
love;we love, you love,
they love.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Love.

PARTICIPIAL MODE.

Imperf.

Perf.

Loving,

Loved.

Note.—In common discourse we say *You love, you are, you were, &c.* in the singular in stead of *thou lovest, &c.* In the language of scripture and prayer, it is always *thou loves &c.* So also in the third person we use the form *he has, he loves, &c.* in common discourse; in scripture, *he hath, he loveth.*

Verbs ending in *y* after a consonant change the *y* into *ie* in the second and third persons singular of the Indicative present; as *cry, criest, cries.* The regular past tense, &c. of such verbs ends in *ied*, as *cry, cried.*

Verbs ending with a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, that has any other than its natural sound, if accented on the last syllable, doubles that consonant, when a syllable is added beginning with a vowel; as *put, putteth; regret, regretted, regretting.*

One verb immediately following another is to be considered in the *infinitive or the participi-

**This was the doctrine of Dr. Johnson: See the grammar prefixed to his dictionary. It is likewise adopted by Mr. GURNEY, in a grammar of no little merit.*

al mode, accordingly as it bears the form of the one or the other. On this principle all the supposed tenses, consisting of more than one verb, are to be solved. To lead the way to such solutions, let us attend to the following

Investigation of the Radical Ideas of may, can, shall, will, might, could, should, would, must, do and have.

MAY is almost universally said to be significant of *liberty*. This, however, is not the radical idea of the word; for it may with perfect propriety be *opposed* to *liberty* thus, "I *may* go; but probably I *shall not* be permitted" The radical meaning of the word is a mere *negation* of *apparent impossibility*; that is, when one says he may do a thing, he merely denies the certain knowledge of any thing to *prevent* it. *Liberty* is an augmented and purely *accidental* meaning. When one person, whose authority or right is supposed to be the only source of obstruction, tells another he may do a thing, it is justly construed into *liberty*, and it is precisely the same thing to say without reserve, he *knows of nothing to prevent*.

The radical idea of MIGHT is the same with *may*.

The radical idea of CAN is acknowledged by all, I believe, to be that of *ability* or *positive power*. To say we CAN do a thing, is to say we ARE ABLE to do it.

COULD is unquestionably the preterite of *can*.

SHALL asserts the *present certainty* of some future action or event, expressed by another

verb in the infinitive mode, which mode, as already noticed, is generally *future* in respect to the time of the verb, on which it depends. To say “*I shall go*,” is equivalent to saying, “*I am to go*,” or “*I am sure to go*.” The radical signification of *shall* is the same in all the persons. When applied to the second or third person, it sometimes, but not always, expresses the certainty derived from conscious authority and determination; as “my servant shall do it.”

SHOULD is doubtless derived from *shall*, and of the same radical idea. This expression, *He said he should do it*, is the same in import with this, He said “*I shall do it*,” when quoted, as the words of the person spoken of.

It is usually said, *should* is often expressive of *duty* or obligation, as in the phrase, “*You should have done it*.” If, however, we consider sentences like this, *elliptical* and conditional, as they probably are, *should* may have the same signification, it has in other cases; as *If you had regarded your duty, you should have done it*.

WILL in all instances, in which it is not figuratively used, may be considered, as having the same signification, that it has in the phrase, *to will*, that is, *to wish*, or *to consent to*. This is the radical meaning in those cases, in which it binds one with an obligation. Thus, if your neighbor propose, that you do something on a certain condition, it is the same thing in respect to obligation for you to tell him, *You will*, or *you consent*, or *you are willing*; for you are bound to fulfil the expectation you voluntarily raise, and hence the peculiar force of *will* in the first person,

it being the word most commonly used in mutual engagements between man and man.

When applied to the *second* or *third* person, *will* is probably used in a *figurative* manner; and we may suppose it was first applied to *inanimate* things. When they had an apparent tendency to a certain event, they might by a very natural figure be said to *will* it; just as it is said of a bowing wall, "It intends to fall." Afterward the figure might by an easy transition be applied to persons.

That the radical signification of *will*, when literally used, is that supposed above, may be further argued from this, that when used with a *negative*, it has that signification in *all* the persons; as "If we *will* not obey, we shall be punished; if you *will* not obey——if he *will* not obey, &c. that is, "if we, &c. do not *will* to obey."

WOULD is the preterite of *will*. and is used in like manner, unless it be, that it is never used in a transitive sense.

DO signifies to act, or perform any thing whatever. To say "I do write" is to say, *I act to write, employ myself to write*, or perform the act of writing.

DID is the preterite of *do*.

MUST always signifies necessity; LET, permission.

HAVE invariably signifies* possession; that is, it is used in referring any property or attribute to the subject; as *he has a fever; he has*

**Encyc. vol. 8. p. 61.*

done well. To understand how *have*, when it precedes the perfect, transitive participle, may still signify possession or attribution, it is to be observed, that actions imply something, which may be possessed, viz. merit or demerit, detriment or profit. The meaning then of the phrase "I have written a letter," says the Encyclopedia, is, "I possess at present the *finished action* of writing a letter." In other words, that action is now attributable to me, or belongs to me. The participle in this case may be considered, as standing in the double relation of a *noun* in the objective case to *have* & of a *verb* governing *letter*. In this view the phrase "I have written a letter," is analagous to this, "Omit reading the letter." In each instance the participle is the immediate object of the preceding verb, and the following noun a secondary object, being an adjunct to the participle.

If the preceding views are correct, those verbs, called auxiliaries, have each a meaning, that is perfectly apprehensible by itself, and it is needless, and therefore unphilosophical to blend these verbs with others, and thus multiply the nominal modes and tenses in the manner, that has been usual.

The following couplets of phrases are equivalent to each other. "I CAN write ; I AM ABLE to write : It MAY be done ; it is not apparently impossible, to be done : I SHALL write ; I AM SURE to write : I WILL write ; I AM WILLING, OR I ENGAGE to write : I MUST write ; I AM NECESSITATED to write. LET me write ; PERMIT me to write. I HAVE written ; the complete action of writing is

now attributable to me ; and so of all the other verbal phrases

The infinitive mode after *may*, *can*, *must*, *shall*, and *will*, is not preceded by the preposition *to*, nor is it after *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *bid*, *dare*, *need*, &c.

CONJUGATION OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

The following verbs are the *same* in the present, past, and participle ; as, pres. *set*, past *set*, part *set* ; viz. *Burst*, *cast*, *cost*, *cut*, *hit*, *hurt*, **knit*, R. *let*, *put*, *rid*, *set*, *shed*, *shred*, *shut*, *slit*, R. *split*, *spread*, *thrust*.

In the following verbs the past indicative, and the participle are alike :

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past & Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past & Part.</i>
<i>Abide</i> ,	<i>abode</i> ,	<i>Dwell</i> ,	<i>dwelt</i> ,
<i>Bend</i> ,	<i>bent</i> , R.	<i>Feed</i> ,	<i>fed</i> ,
<i>Bereave</i> ,	<i>bereft</i> , R.	<i>Feel</i> ,	<i>fell</i> ,
<i>Beseech</i> ,	<i>besought</i> ,	<i>Fight</i> ,	<i>fought</i> ,
<i>Bind</i> ,	<i>bound</i> ,	<i>Find</i> ,	<i>found</i> ,
<i>Bleed</i> ,	<i>bled</i> ,	<i>Flee</i> ,	<i>fled</i> ,
<i>Breed</i> ,	<i>bred</i> ,	<i>Fling</i> ,	<i>flung</i> ,
<i>Bring</i> ,	<i>brought</i> ,	<i>Get</i> ,	<i>got</i> ,
<i>Build</i>	<i>built</i> , R.	<i>Gild</i> ,	<i>gilt</i> ,
<i>Buy</i> ,	<i>bought</i> ,	<i>Gird</i> ,	<i>girt</i> , R.
<i>Catch</i> ,	<i>caught</i> ,	<i>Grind</i> ,	<i>ground</i> ,
<i>Cling</i> ,	<i>clung</i> ,	<i>Have</i> ,	<i>had</i> ,
<i>Creep</i> ,	<i>crept</i> ,	<i>Hang</i> ,	<i>hung</i> , R.
<i>Deal</i> ,	<i>dealt</i> , R.	<i>Hear</i> ,	<i>heard</i> ,
<i>Dig</i> ,	<i>dug</i> , R.	<i>Hold</i> ,	<i>held</i> ,
<i>Dream</i> ,	<i>dreamt</i> , R.	<i>Keep</i> ,	<i>kept</i> ,

*Note.—R, added to a verb, signifies that it is likewise regular ; as *knit*, *knit* or *knitted*.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past & Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past & Part.</i>
Lay,	laid,	Sling,	slung,
Lead,	led,	Slink,	slunk,
Leave,	left,	Speed,	sped,
Lend,	lent,	Spend,	spent,
Lose,	lost,	Spill,	spilt,
Make,	made,	Spin,	spun,
Mean,	meant,	Stand,	stood,
Meet,	met,	Sting,	stung,
Pay,	paid,	Stink,	stunk,
Read,	read,	String,	strung,
Rend,	rent <i>r.</i>	Sweep,	swept,
Say,	said,	Swing,	swung,
Seek,	sought,	Teach,	taught,
Sell,	sold,	Tell,	told,
Send,	sent,	Think,	thought
Shine,	shone, <i>r.</i>	Weep,	wept,
Shoe,	shod,	Win.	won,
Shoot,	shot,	Wind,	wound,
Sit,	sat,	Work,	wrought, <i>r.</i>
Sleep,	slept,	Wring,	wrung.

The following verbs have distinct forms for the past and participle.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Part.</i>
Arise,	arose,	arisen,
Am,	was,	been,
Awake,	awoke, <i>r.</i>	awaked,
Bear,	bore,	borne,
Beat,	beat,	beaten, beat,
Begin,	began,	begun,
Bid,	bade, bade,	bidden, bid,
Bite,	bit,	bitten,
Blow,	blew,	blown,

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Part.</i>
Break,	broke,	broken.
Chide,	chid,	chidden, chid.
Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Cleave,	clove, cleft,	cloven, cleft.
Clothe,	R.	clad, R.
Come,	came,	come.
Crow,	crew, R.	R.
Dare,	durst,	R.
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Drive,	drove,	driven.
Drink,	drank,	drunk.
Eat,	eat, ate,	eaten.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Forget,	forgot,	forgotten.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Give,	gave,	given.
Go,	went,	gone.
Grave,	R.	graven, R.
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Hew,	R.	hewn, R.
Hide,	hid,	hidden, hid.
Know,	knew,	known.
Lade,	R.	laden.
*Lie, to lie down,	lay,	lain.
Mow,	R.	mown, R.
Ride,	rode,	ridden, rode.
Ring,	rung, rang,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Rive,	R.	riven.
Run,	ran,	run.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	<i>Part.</i>
Saw,	R.	sawn, R.
See,	saw,	seen.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Shape,	shaped,	shapen, R.
Shave,	R.	shaven, R.
Shear,	R.	shorn, R.
Show,	R.	shown, R.
Sing,	sung, sang,	sung.
Sink,	sank, sunk,	sunk.
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Slide,	slid,	slidden.
Smite,	smote,	smitten.
Sow,	R.	sown, R.
Speak,	spoke,	spoken.
Spit,	spat, spit,	spit, R.
Spring,	sprang, sprung,	sprung.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.
Strike,	struck,	struck, stricken.
Strive,	strove,	striven.
Strow,	R.	strown, R.
Swear,	swore,	sworn.
Swell,	swelled,	swollen, R.
Swim,	swam, swum,	swum.
Take,	took,	taken.
Tear,	tore,	torn.
Thrive,	throve, R.	thriven.
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Tread,	trod,	trodden.
Wear,	wore,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	woven.
Write,	wrote,	written.

OF THE ADVERB.

An adverb is a word, joined to a *verb*, an *adjective*, or another *adverb*, to give it a more *particular meaning*; as *To act WISELY*; *MORE beautiful*; *VERY well*.

Two words, viz. *yes* and *no*, are called *adverbs*, but stand alone, and supply the place of a *whole sentence*, each; as, *Will you do it?* *YES*; that is, *I will do it*.

A few adverbs are compared; as

Pos.	Com.	Sup.
Soon,	sooner,	soonest.
Often,	oftener,	oftenest.

Adverbs ending in *ly*, are never varied; but the degrees are expressed by distinct words, as *wisely*, *more wisely*, *most wisely*.

Irregular Comparisons.

Pos.	Com.	Sup.
Well,	better,	best.
Ill,	worse,	worst.
Little,	less,	least.
Much,	more,	most.

Some words occasionally perform the twofold office of adverbs and conjunctions, and may in those places be called *Conjunctive Adverbs*. Such are *when*, *while*, *where*, *how*, *as*, and the like; as, *we will attend, WHILE you read*; *teach us, HOW we should speak*. *James is not so tall, as John*. Here *while*, *how* and *as*, are adverbs, and yet serve, like conjunctions, to unite simple sentences together.

OF THE CONJUNCTION.

A conjunction is a word, that is chiefly used to join two sentences together; as, *I went, AND*

returned. Sometimes it connects *similar words* in the *same* sentence; as *THREE and TWO are five.*

The most important division of conjunction is into Copulative and Disjunctive. The copulative conjunction serves to connect and continue a sentence, by expressing an *addition*, *supposition*, a *cause*, &c. as, *I will go, AND see him; see, THAT it be done.* The disjunctive conjugation, while it continues the sentence, implies *opposition* or separation in sense; as *he came, BUT did not tarry; neither you, NOR he was there.*

Some conjunctions, always stand between the sentences they connect, and may therefore be called Intermediate conjunctions. Such are *and, but, or, nor, for, than, yet.* Some may precede both the sentences they join, and may be called Prepositive conjunctions. Of this kind are, *because, if, lest, that, though, unless;* as, *if you go, you will see it.*

Sometimes for the sake of emphasis or distinctness, a *couplet* of conjunctions is used where *one* would suffice the purpose of connexion. These are called Correspondent conjunctions. Such are, *because, therefore, though, yet,* as, *THOUGH he went, YET he did not see him.*

OF THE PREPOSITION.

A preposition is a word, that is set before a noun, a pronoun, or a verb, to connect it to some other word in the *same simple sentence*,* and show the relation between them; as, "*He came*

*See definition of a simple sentence. p. 42.

FROM *Europe* ; the book is WITH *him* ; he is ready to go. Here *from*, *with* and *to* are prepositions, and serve to connect the words in *Italics*, and to show their relations to each other.

Prepositions may connect *different cases* and *different parts of speech* together, and in this they differ from conjunctions.

The preposition often *precedes* both the words it connects ; as, “ *to whom did you speak ?* ” *By industry riches increase.*

Some prepositions have relation to *number*, and may be called Numeral prepositions. *In*, *into*, and *within*, relate to the singular number ; *between* and *betwixt*, to the *dual* ; *among*, to the *plural*, as distinguished from the dual.

Some words, usually considered prepositions, or conjunctions, may with more simplicity be treated, as verbs in the imperative, or the participial mode, agreeing with nouns, expressed, or understood. Such are, *according*, *during*, *seeing*, *except*, *excepting*, *save*, and *notwithstanding* ; as, I will treat you *according* to your deserts ; that is, in a *manner* according, &c.

OF THE INTERJECTION.

An interjection is a word, thrown into a sentence, to express the feelings of the speaker ; as, *O*, *alas*, *fy*.

Mutability of Words.

Though every word, while it performs the same principal office, should be considered the same part of speech, many words, while they retain their *radical ideas*, may so vary their office, as to become different parts of speech.

Thus *glass*, for instance, may become an *adjective*, as, *glass bottle*. *More* and *most* may be either *adjectives*, or *adverbs*. *Play*, *work*, *help*, *hurt*, and a multitude of other words are occasionally *nouns* or *verbs*.

The learner is to consider the *office of a word in the particular instance before him, making due allowance for ellipsis, and let the office determine the part of speech according to definition.

SYNTAX.

Syntax teaches the mutual influences and connexions of words in a sentence

A sentence is a collection of words, so arranged, as to express or imply an assertion, supposition, wish, or command. A number of words implying *one* such assertion, &c. and no more, is called a simple sentence; as, *I am weary; if he go.*

Such a combination of words, as implies two or more assertions, &c. is called Compound; as, *I am weary, sick, and discouraged; that is, I am weary; I am sick; I am discouraged.*

The relations of words in a sentence are chiefly those of *agreement* and *government*. *Agreement* is the correspondence of one word to

*It is hoped, that instructors, will take care to explain every thing in the definitions of the grammar, so as to be sure their pupils understand them, and that they will then require them to distinguish the parts of speech by the definitions, and not by the use of a dictionary, which is a mere waste of time.

another in form or sense. *Government* is that influence, one word has over another in directing its *mode, case, number, &c.*

RULES OF SYNTAX.

I. When an address is made to a person, the noun or pronoun is put in the nominative case independent; as, *my sister, give me your hand.*

II. Every nominative, except the name of a person addressed, must be the subject of some verb, expressed or understood; as, *YOU READ; I who speak, WAS there; HE BEING there, we departed.* Here *you* is the subject of the verb *read*; *I* of *was*; and *he* of *being*. *YOU WRITE well; HE very ill.* *He* is the subject of *writes*, understood.

*False *Grammar.*

“Man, though he is immortal, yet he cleaves to the earth.” “Which laws, if they were obeyed, mankind would be happy.”

III. Every verb in any mode but the infinitive, and in some instances the participial, belongs to some nominative or subject, expressed or understood.

False Grammar.

“As it hath pleased him to give you safe deliverance, and hath preserved you in danger—— you may still hope in him.” “The calm, in

*The several instances of false grammar are violations of the rules immediately preceding. It is recommended, that instructors, after fully explaining the rules, require their pupils to write the bad into good grammar.

which he was born, and *lasted* so long, was disturbed.

Note The participle sometimes refers to an *objective* case, governed by some preceding word; as, *I saw HIM DOING it.*

IV. The verb must agree with its nominative word in number and person; as, *he reads; you read.*

Note. This rule is to be given only for verbs in the indicative, subjunctive or imperative mode.

False Grammar.

*Was you there? Each of them say it. Either he, or she have done it. There was not many present.

V. Two or more nominatives, connected by the conjunction, *and*, require the verb to be in the plural; as, *JAMES and JOHN WERE brethren.*

VI. Nouns of multitude singular, require singular or plural verbs agreeing with them, accordingly as the individuals, signified by those nouns, are considered separately or unitedly; as, *The assembly is large: The assembly are devoted to private gratifications.*

False Grammar.

This sort of things are to be despised. The people works hard.

*This is an expression, some persons of high character seem laboring to establish. It is however an innovation, and, if received, it may fairly pave the way to a similar use of the third person singular of the present tense: viz. *Is you? or you is.*

VII. Two or more nouns or pronouns, signifying the same thing, are put by apposition in the same case; as, PAUL, *an* APOSTLE; I, GEORGE WASHINGTON.

VIII. The possessive case is governed by the name of the thing possessed; as, *John's book*; *my brother*.

Note 1. When several nouns stand in the relation of the possessive case, the *form* is omitted in all but the last; as, *John and Peter's book*; Asaph, the Recorder's writing.

Note 2. When two *different possessions* are to be expressed, one of them should be done by the use of the preposition *of* and the *objective* case; as, *the brother of Peter's wife*.

IX. The pronoun must agree with the noun, for which it stands, in number, gender and person; as, ANNA gave me HER book; My son, give me THY heart; The MAN, WHO does it.

Note 1. All nouns, except those in apposition with *I* or *thou*, and the names of persons addressed, are of the third person.

Note 2. When a pronoun refers to several nouns or pronouns, signifying different things, and of different persons, it must agree with the second person, rather than the third, and with the first in preference to the second; as, *You and he gave me YOUR word*; *You and John and I will exert OURSELVES*.

Note 3. When the *connective* pronoun refers to two antecedents signifying the same thing, it may agree in person with either; as *I am the man, WHO SAY it, or WHO SAYS it*.

Note 4. The neuter pronoun *it* is frequently

applied to babes. Sometimes it is used without reference to any noun; as, *it rains*; *it is he*; *it was they*.

X. Every adjective qualifies or defines some noun or subject, expressed or understood. (*The* however is to be excepted, which may be prefixed to the adverbs *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*.)

XI. Numeral adjectives must agree with their nouns in number; as, *a man*, *ten men*, *each house*, *both my hands*, *all my fingers*.

Exception! *Many* is sometimes used with the singular; as, *many a man*.

False Grammar.

A great ways. *Ten foot*. *A hundred mile*. *I hate those kind of things*. *All my eyes are sore*.

XII. Some adjectives have a secondary reference, and must correspond to a larger number, in which the nouns, to which they immediately relate, are included; as *either man of the two*; *every one of the five*.

False Grammar.

He could not open any of his eyes. *He injured every one of the two*. *Husband and wife should not contend one with another*. *All christians should love each other*.

XIII. Transitive verbs govern the objective case, (either after or before them;) as, *I SEE HIM*; *WHOM do you FEAR?* *LIFE let us cherish.*"

False Grammar.

Who did he marry? *Who did you hear say it?* *He blamed you and I*.

XIV. Some verbs of teaching and calling

may govern *two* objectives ; as, *He TAUGHT ME GRAMMAR ; They CALLED HIM a good MAN.*

XV. Intransitive and passive verbs have the same case after them, that is before them ; as, *I am HE ; I took IT to be HIM ; HE is ESTEEMED a good MAN.*

False Grammar.

It is me. It was him. I supposed it to be he. Whom, did you think, he was ?

XVI. Every preposition connects two words, expressed or understood, and shows their mutual relation.

XVII. Prepositions govern nouns and pronouns in the objective case ; as, *to me ; from us ; with whom ; in Boston.*

False Grammar.

Who did you speak to ? He spoke to she and I.

XVIII. Numeral prepositions must agree in number with the words they govern or connect ; as, *The fox ran INTO the FOREST ; he ran AMONG the TREES ; It stands between the river and mountain.*

False Grammar.

He divided his estate between all his children. There is among mankind a strong propensity to fraud. Many vices prevail among that people.

XIX. The preposition *of*, when used with the superlative degree, includes the noun, to which that superlative either immediately or remotely refers, as a *part* of the things signified by the word, that is governed by *of* ; as, *He is the BEST of MEN ; I love HIM most of all MEN.*

False Grammar.

"*Eve*, the fairest of all her daughters." "Of all others I love him most."

XX. The infinitive mode is often connected by the preposition *to* to a *verb*, a *noun*, or an *adjective*; as, *I WISH to LEARN*; he has a *DISPOSITION to DO it*; *APT to TEACH*.

Note. The infinitive mode sometimes *precedes* the word, to which it is thus connected; as, *To SEE is PLEASANT*; that is, *It is PLEASANT to SEE*.

Note 2. The infinitive mode is sometimes connected to a word understood; as, *To speak plainly, I do not believe you*; that is, *WILLING to SPEAK plainly*, or *In ORDER to SPEAK plainly*, (*I say*,) *I do not believe you*.

XXI. Several verbs are followed immediately by the infinitive mode; (that is, without the preposition *to*;) as, *I CAN WRITE*; *I DARE GO*; *I SAW him DO it*.

False Grammar.

I heard him to say it. They bid me to go.

XXII. Participles are governed by the verb *am*, (or any of its derivatives,) and referred to the same nominative or subject; as, *I am writing*; *I am WOUNDED*; *The letter is WRITTEN*.

False Grammar.

The words were spoke. The liquor was drank. The bread was eat. The letters are wrote.

XXIII. The participle in *ing* may be governed, as a noun, by a preposition, and in some instances by a transitive verb, while, as a verb it governs an objective after it; as, *desirous OF LEARNING MUSIC*; *AVOID SEEING my FACE. In*

such a construction the participle may be called a Verbal Noun.

Note. When the participle is preceded by *the* it loses its verbal nature. Hence the following is bad grammar; *By the DOING EVIL, we ruin ourselves.*

XXIV. *Have*, when followed by a verb, governs (in the relation of a verbal noun,) the past participle, and attributes it to the same nominative or subject; as, *I have SEEN him*. Here *seen*, which, as a transitive verb, governs *him*, is governed by *have*, and referred or attributed to the nominative *I*.

False Grammar.

He had drank a pint. You have ate your meat. I have wrote a letter.

Note. The verb *have* being present, implies that the completed action, signified by the participle, is attributable to the agent now, in the way of credit, discredit, profit or damage. Hence both the agent and the effect of the action must be still in existence, or the phrase is improper.

False Grammar.

Bonaparte has conquered almost the whole continent of Europe. Cicero has written poems, which are now lost.

XXV. Every adverb, except *yes* and *no*, qualifies some other word expressed or understood; as, *When will you go?* Now. (I will go now.)

Note. The relation of the adverbs, *only*, *merely*, *scarcely*, and the like, must be carefully expressed by their position; otherwise the sense may be obscured or perverted.

XXVI. Some adverbs are occasionally con-

nected by prepositions to verbs, (being equivalent to defined nouns;) as, I have never SEEN him *till* NOW; (*till this time.*) He PAID it *at* ONCE; (*at one time.*)

XXVII Two negatives destroy each other, and amount to an affirmative.

False Grammar.

I did not say nothing. I can't see none. I never had none.

XXVIII. Every conjunction performs the office of connecting sentences or words together.

XXIX. Conjunctions connect the same modes of verbs, and cases of nouns and pronouns.

False Grammar.

They spoke to him and I. They are taller, than me. She can not read so well, as him. I expected to see him, and that I should find him happy.

XXX. Certain adjectives, adverbs, and conjunctions require certain correspondent conjunctions after them, which they may be said to govern. The *comparative degree* is followed by *than*; *both*, by *and*; *either*, by *or*; *neither*, *no*, *never*, and *not*, by *nor*; *such*, and *so*, by *as*; as *You are GREATER, THAN he; BOTH you AND I were there.*

False Grammar.

I will not do this, or that. He is as wise, if not wiser, than she.

XXXI. The conjunctions *if, though, lest, that*, and some others, when followed by a verb of a future signification, generally require the subjunctive mode; as, "THOUGH he SLAY me, yet

will I put my trust in him;" TILL he come; I move, THAT it be done.

XXXII The objective case follows *like*, and *worth*; as, "He is like him;" It is WORTH a DOLLAR; (governed by prepositions understood.)

Resolutions of Phrases.

Note.—Most difficult phrases are *elliptical*, and will be explained by supplying the words understood.

"Comparatively speaking, (we say) this life is nothing." "Speaking, as a verb, belongs to *we, you, &c.* understood.

"He shall render to every man (good, or evil,) according to his works." According is a participle, belonging to *good, or evil, or the like*, understood.

"Notwithstanding your forbiddance, he went." Your forbiddance not preventing, he went.

"During the year." During is a participle referring to *year*, as a nominative.

"This is as great as that" (is great). The second *as* qualifies great *understood.

"I respect him, as an officer (is respected,) but dislike him, as a man" (is disliked;) that is, *in the view in which* an officer is respected, &c.

"Such persons, †as (those are whom) you choose." Such, as (those are who) go.

"They love ‡each other." Each person loves the other person.

**Latin, tantus, quantus.* †*Tales, quales.*
‡*Alius, alium; alia, alium &c.*

*False Grammar,**Corrected.**It lays by you.**It lies by you.**He laid abed.**He lay abed.**He has laid abed.**He has lain abed.**She sets in a chair.**She sits in a chair.**He sot in a chair.**He sat in a chair.**He sot it down.**He set it down.**He was to home.**He was at home.**I had rather do it.**I would rather do it.**I had as goods.**I might as well.**You had better do it.**You would better do it.**I had as lives.**I would as lieve.**He lives along with me.**He lives with me.**John he did it.**John did it.***Them men did it.**Those men did it.**Notwithstanding all his**With all, &c.**wealth, he is unhappy.**This is not as good as**Not so good, &c.**that.**Objectionable.**Amended.**He went from there.**He went thence.**Where has he gone to?**Whither has he gone?**From where?**Whence?**Locking for of judgment.**Expectation of judgment.**An unheard of thing.**A singular, new, or un-**precedented thing.**There is but one.**There is only one.**But for you, I should**Had you not prevented, I**have done it.**should have done it.**Them man is as bad, as him man.*

APPENDIX.

Rules of Punctuation.

I. Every *compound** sentence may be divided by commas (or longer pauses, into as many parts as, it contains *simple* sentences either in form or sense; thus: "John, James, and Peter, were apostles." "He is a wise, active, virtuous, and great man." "Live soberly, righteously, and godly." "You are greater, than I." "You are as great, as he." The man, whom you saw, is dead." "He being sick, we went to see him."

II Two very short sentences, closely connected, are not generally separated by a comma; as, "You and I were there." "He is a wise and virtuous man."

III. To prevent obscurity, a *simple* sentence may be divided by a comma.

IV. The nominative case independent is to be separated on both sides by commas; as, "I am, my friend, indebted to you."

V. Nouns in apposition, when one of them is qualified by other words, are generally separated by a comma; as, "Paul, the apostle, wrote to the Hebrews."

VI. A sentence composed of different *classes* of *simple sentences*, should have those classes distinguished by the *semicolon*; "He is idle, passionate, and cruel; she industrious, meek, and kind."

VII. *Simple sentences in contrast* are gene-

*See definitions of sentences, p. 42.

rally divided by the semicolon ; as, "She always does well ; he, never."

VIII. Suspensions of sense (as in the following example,) require semicolons ; "To be prepared for death ; to be prepared for judgment ; to be prepared for a happy immortality ; we must lead devout lives."

If this sentence were *inverted*, the pauses, except the first, should be the same.

IX. Whenever there is occasion for distinguishing between the semicolon and period, the *colon* is to be used.

X. The close of every independent and complete sentence is to be marked by a *period*.

XI. Interrogative sentences, or those which require answers, are to be distinguished by the note of interrogation ; as, "How many are there ?"

XII. Where the hearer is merely called to *consider*, but not to *answer*, the *exclamation* is used ; as, "How many men live like brutes !"

XIII. Independent sentences, in which there is no express assertion, are marked with the *exclamation* ; as, "A strange assertion !"

XIV. Those parts of writing, which are more distinct than sentences, viz the several *subjects* of discourse, are divided by *paragraphs*, or *blanks* in the lines.

Use of Capitals.

The pronoun *I*, and the interjection *O*, should be written in capitals ; also the first letter in every proper noun, and in adjectives derived from proper nouns ; the first in every line of poetry, and in every independent sentence.





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